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HIGHER EDUCATION
BIENNIAL SURVEY
1922-1924

By

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[Advance Sheets from the Biennial Survey of Education
in the United States, 1922-1924]



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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,

Washington, D. C., November 26, 1926.

SIR: The administrators and faculties of higher educational institutions are frequently so engaged in the problems of individual institutions that they do not find time nor occasion to take stock at periodic intervals of the activities and general progress of the universities and colleges of the United States. Dr. Arthur J. Klein, chief of the division of higher education, has therefore, at my request, prepared this review of matters which engaged much of the attention of the higher educational institutions of the United States during the period 1922 to 1924. The influence of the rising cost of higher education upon institutional administration and ideals is presented in connection with the steps proposed or taken to meet changing conditions. Methods of orienting the college freshman in his new environment are discussed together with experiments and proposals for changes which will further improve standards of scholarship, teaching methods, and adjustment of college work to the public, social, and economic life of college graduates. I recommend that the accompanying manuscript be published under the title "Higher Education, Biennial Survey, 1922-1924."

Respectfully submitted,

JNO. J. TIGERT, *Commissioner.*

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

HIGHER EDUCATION

By ARTHUR J. KLEIN

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COST OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Central in the influences which have directed development during the two years is the rising cost of higher education. As one element in the educational costs of the Nation, higher education has been subjected to the restraining influences of compulsory economy. But because such a small proportion of the taxpayers participate directly in higher educational activities, the colleges and universities have been subjected to more criticism, perhaps, than other elements of the educational system of the United States.

The whole series of facts with reference to the cost of higher education had, at the opening of the period which this discussion covers, been presented to the public and to educators with decided emphasis. The income of higher institutions in 1912, excluding additions for endowment, was \$89,835,787; by 1922 this had increased to \$272,815,703. This threefold increase in money costs during the 10-year period, an increase much greater than the increase in population or in the income of the country, caused great concern.

The most important element in accounting for the increase is the growth in teachers' salaries. This increase during the years of the World War and immediately thereafter has been one of the most remarkable phenomena in higher education in the United States. In small colleges salaries rose from an average of about \$1,400 to an average of \$2,000, in medium-sized institutions from \$2,500 to \$4,000, and in the large institutions from \$5,000 to \$8,000 or \$10,000. During the same period the number of students more than doubled. In 1912 there were 255,673 students enrolled in the colleges and universities; by 1922 the number had become 550,906. Obviously, however, doubling the number of students does not fully account for the

fact that expenditure trebled. Other factors contributed to increased cost.

Research, always an expensive feature of university expenditures, became in all fields increasingly a concern of higher educational institutions. Every university of any pretensions came to base its claims for honor and reputation largely upon extensive programs of graduate research. Undergraduate courses at the same time multiplied and were enriched by the addition of a great variety of offerings which formerly had not been regarded as essential parts of an undergraduate course. Technical courses were added, professional courses stiffened, and work with direct pre-professional purposes emphasized. More students, more research, more varied courses, mean more teachers (an increase in staff from 30,034 in 1912 to 49,838 in 1922); more buildings, including dormitories, laboratories, and classrooms; more equipment; in other words, more money. While this educational development was going on, money lost value, or in other words price levels increased.

As a result of all these influences, educational expenditures for universities and colleges were of necessity expressed in terms of American "big business." People who had previously concerned themselves little about higher education or about any education in fact, felt free to criticize and to make suggestions. Adverse comment was released which had formerly been held back by the somewhat sacrosanct position which higher education had come to enjoy. A flood of questions resulted, all tinged with discontent. "Are the results obtained in our colleges worth the cost?" "Are our educational institutions giving us, in the character of citizenship which their training is supposed to develop, a type of citizen worth paying for?" "Do the colleges and universities build up character of a democratic kind, or do they develop snobbishness and intellectual aristocracy?" "Are the institutions turning out graduates of such intellectual ability, even of such scholarship, as we may expect from what we spend upon them?" Business men and others were free in their statements that the college graduate came from college with no idea of how to work and showing little development of thoroughness and application. It was questioned whether the college really met the fundamental material needs of students by providing them with a means whereby they could earn a better living by reason of their college education. All this criticism was general in nature but directed toward those fundamental things which had in the past been accepted as the peculiar functions and contributions of higher education.

Criticism went further. It asked whether those who received the benefits of higher education should not pay for what they get. The suggestion that free education should not be quite so free struck the public institutions supported by taxation and the private institutions supported by endowment and free gifts. Response to the financial

pressure of the moment may account for such criticism more largely than the general theory that society should pay less of the expense of higher education, but everywhere the tendency was toward insistence upon higher tuition and institutional fees.

The great influx of students, the resulting expense, and discontent with the product of the colleges made many ask whether too many men were not going to college. President Hopkins, of Dartmouth, made the statement in regard to this point which excited the most comment and discussion: "The opportunities for securing an education by way of the college course are definitely a privilege and not at all a universal right." The apparent antidemocratic tone of this statement led educators to interpret President Hopkin's statement to mean that there are not too many trained men turned out by the colleges, but that too many are in college who can not be there profitably. The argument then becomes, "Do not let into college those who will not themselves profit in proportion to effort and expense, or those who by their presence will slow up the progress of others." In practically no case have college presidents been willing to subscribe to the belief that the college should care only for the exceptional man.

The nature of college work and its aims have also suffered attack. Frequently objection has been made to the cultural motive in American college education in favor of the vocational. One of the great foundations goes so far in a report as to advocate that the cultural elements be cared for by the high school and that the college devote itself largely to technical, professional, or other vocational training and to research work.

Economic pressure is not sufficient to account for the action taken to meet the criticism offered, nor is the criticism released by economic conditions adequate ground for explanation of the steps taken to improve higher education. College and university administrators have not been compelled by economy and criticism to take cognizance of defects in the higher educational system. Rather, outside interest and suggestion have given them increased opportunity and freedom to inaugurate corrective measures which former tradition and conservatism made difficult. These measures and proposals have not, for the most part, been generally accepted as final or of universal application. They consist in many cases of more or less isolated experiments and discussion. Choice of educational proposals and of measures for inclusion in this survey is therefore based largely upon subjective judgment and not upon standards of practice.

No question can be raised that the economic situation has led to determined efforts to bring about more careful institutional book-keeping and budgeting. In the past, and even to a great extent at the present time, the higher institutions have known only approximately the actual costs of conducting the institution, and have had

even less idea of the distribution of these costs. The Bureau of Education has never been able to collect, even from State-supported institutions, statistics of expenditures which are comparable in form and substance. It is to be hoped that the educational finance inquiry authorized in 1922, in so far as it relates to higher education, will result in some further general understanding of college and university accounting.

Notable among contributions to this end is the very careful cost system worked out by the University of Illinois in 1921-22 and described by the president's report for that year. The work of the board of higher education curricula of the State of Washington is already well known. The General Education Board, which had previously published material and given assistance upon the budgeting of college and university funds and expenditures, has, as a result of increased interest in this subject, recently created a division of college and university accounting. Colleges everywhere are rapidly adopting intelligent budget methods and learning to handle the business affairs of the institutions in a businesslike way. This is one of the most marked tendencies of the biennium, which is directly due to increasing costs and financial pressure.

SELECTIVE PROCESSES

Partly as a result of increased costs and partly as a result of increased interest in testing and grading programs developed from Army psychological testing, colleges have during the biennium attempted to meet the problem of the great influx of students by more careful selective processes, both for admission and for passage through the work of the college. These processes range all the way from direct limitation of numbers to attempts to score the individual characteristics of students with reference to the bearing of these characteristics upon suitability for college education. The most important methods may be grouped under seven heads: First, arbitrary limitation of the number admitted; second, increased fees; third, use of the entrance examination; fourth, enforcement of high standards for entrance and institutional accrediting; fifth, grade limitations, both for admission and for progress; sixth, scoring of personal characteristics; and seventh, psychological testing. Each of these will be discussed briefly in turn.

No attempt has been made to determine all of the institutions that have during the biennium placed a direct limitation upon the number of students admitted. Harvard placed, in June, 1924, a limit of 1,000 for its freshman class. Syracuse University during the biennium adopted the plan of abolishing scholarships in order to maintain a tuition income commensurate with the number of stu-

dents instructed. By this device the university was able to save \$50,000 annually.

Limiting enrollment has its reverse side. Arbitrary restriction in the number of students whom an institution will receive may result, unless careful thought is given to the resources of the institution and the work offered, in a unit which is not economic. Overhead expense does not vary in exact correspondence to increase or reduction of the number of students. An instructor who has a small student-hour teaching load costs just as much and the space occupied is usually just as great as if he had a load of standard efficient size. Furthermore, limitation of numbers results in reduction of tuition income, which may make necessary uneconomic reduction of institutional expenditures. In cases where limitations have been imposed they have been based upon analysis of the institution's resources and an estimate of its ability to handle certain numbers effectively. Such limitations, it is stated, have resulted in a changed attitude on the part of those entering college. For the idea that the college is a respectable four-year loaf has been substituted, in many instances at least, a realization that college attendance is a privilege which must be met by a corresponding sense of responsibility.

INCREASE OF FEES

An obvious device which it was thought might limit the number of applicants for college entrance and the number of those who persist through a college course, was increase of student fees. This proposal was in line with the criticism of higher education that it was too free and that students should pay a larger proportion of the expense of their education. A study of the fees charged, made by the Bureau of Education for the year 1923-24, shows, when compared with fees listed in the catalogues of preceding years, that many institutions have thus increased the financial load of the student during the biennium. However, reduction in the number of students has not resulted. Michigan increased the fees in its medical courses, but this had little effect upon the number applying for admission. The University of Illinois also increased its fees to nonresidents of the State, but again this had little effect in reducing the number of applicants. In general, increase of fees, therefore, has the effect of increasing the income of the institution but little effect upon discouraging attendance. Such increase of income as is derived from increase of fees does not necessarily mean greater economy. If the number of students admitted increases, costs may increase more rapidly than fee income, since in no case has an institution attempted to raise its fees to the point where the student pays the entire cost.

of his education. No one has as yet determined a fee charge which will actually hold applications for admission to any specific number for a given institution.

ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS

Although some institutions, notably those in New England, continue to maintain a direct control over the number of entrants each year by means of the entrance examination conducted by the institution itself, there seems to be little tendency to take further advantage of this device. In the Middle West and West, where the State-supported institutions more generally set the pace under the restrictions of a position in the public-school system, there seems little tendency to limit numbers or to determine educability by means of institutional entrance examinations. It may be questioned whether more extensive use of this device may not have a contribution to make to the creation of institutions of distinctive character. Uniformity is promoted between different institutions through standardization carried on by the national and regional accrediting associations and through the work of the College Entrance Examination Board; there will always be a place for institutions which participate in such a uniform system. However, it is probable that in the near future institutions which now maintain their positions in the college world only upon the basis that they conform to the standards of accrediting associations may wish to develop educational service of distinctive character. They may find the entrance examination one means of insuring entrants who will be suited to the peculiar character which they wish to impress upon the institution.

STANDARDS OF ADMISSION AND OF INSTITUTIONAL ACCREDITING

The work of the regional and national accrediting associations tends to bring about uniformity between institutions. During the biennium the influence and importance of the regional associations have developed to a remarkable degree. The north central association and the southern association now exercise more powerful influences upon secondary education and upon the standardization of colleges themselves than do any other national forces. In this connection a resolution of the north central association, adopted in 1923 and supported by the higher educational representatives in the association, recommends that the colleges should provide an alternative system of entrance by which students who have completed 11 or 12 units in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades of the senior high school may be admitted with full standing. If this resolution is accepted by the member institutions, it will have an important effect

upon the development of the junior-senior high-school system and tend to reduce the number of applicants for college entrance who are unfit, by providing in these high schools completion courses not looking to college entrance. Similar effects in relieving the college burden may be expected from the growth of the junior college idea. Further discussion of the junior college will be found at another point in this review.

The tendency toward uniformity has been promoted by the adoption by the American Council of Education of standards for colleges, junior colleges, and teacher-training institutions, the two latter during the biennium. These standards were published with the recommendation that the regional and other accrediting agencies adopt them as a basis for accrediting institutions within their special fields of influence. Practically all of the regional associations have followed this suggestion and adopted the American council's standards or modified them somewhat to meet local necessities. The Association of American Universities, which had previously operated under the standards devised by the Carnegie Foundation, has also adopted the standards of the American council and has been given a grant by the Carnegie Foundation to enable it to conduct examinations of institutions for purposes of accrediting. The Catholic Education Association has accepted the standards of the American Council of Education, and other denominational educational organizations have been considering similar or other action looking to betterment of standards in church schools under their control or influence. The interest of the denominational colleges in the development of higher standards has arisen in part from the influence of increased standardization for other institutions and in part because the competition for students has been so reduced that they can afford to take steps in this direction.

The American Association of Teachers Colleges also adopted at its meeting in Cleveland, in February, 1923, standards for accrediting teachers colleges and normal schools. These standards have not and probably will not be applied to the institutions which were members of the association at the time of this adoption, but new applicants for membership will be admitted upon the basis of these standards. No doubt this will have considerable influence upon the regional associations in their accrediting of teacher-training institutions.

The Colorado State College adopted in 1923 higher standards involving more restrictive prescriptions for preceding work, conditional admission, and most significant, perhaps, omission of credit for life experience, teaching of penmanship, training in art and music, and other forms of work which do not contribute directly to the course offered by the college.

Paralleling the development of more exact standards for admission to college and for admission to the list of institutions which may properly be defined as higher educational institutions is the development in the standards for professional work. The American Bar Association adopted standards in 1921; and in 1923, the American Pharmaceutical Association, the National Association of Boards of Pharmacy, and the American Conference of Pharmaceutical Faculties also established standards for their specific work.

The University of Michigan determined in 1923-24 to begin in the fall of 1926 to require for admission to the school of law three years' work in college and in 1927 four years' work. This will make the law school at Michigan entirely a graduate institution, with the exception that students who take the combined letters and law course at the university or in other approved colleges may save two years of work. In line with the Carnegie Foundation's studies upon dental education, a similar plan is being considered by Michigan for the College of Dental Surgery. Columbia's Teachers College in October, 1922, adopted for the School of Practical Arts a change in admission which requires for admission two years in a college or a technical school instead of graduation from high school. This change was made necessary by the rapid growth of the School of Practical Arts. The tendency is to extend the time preliminary to professional training and the time for professional training itself in law, medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, teaching, and engineering.

GRADE LIMITATIONS

At the same time that it limited its enrollment in the entering class to 1,000, Harvard changed its entrance requirements to provide that 75 per cent must be obtained on the entrance examination and also that the boys admitted without examination must in their preparatory work rank among the highest seventh of boys in the class. The University of Illinois requires a grade of 10 per cent better than passing in the institution from which the student comes. The Kansas State Board of Administration has recommended that the plan of admitting graduates of accredited high schools upon an automatic basis be abolished. In general, many college executives are coming to believe that the selective process upon the basis of high rating in the preparatory work results in reduction of the number of students who will not profit sufficiently from college work. It is a real selective device.

CHARACTER SCORING

It seems to have been established by various investigations, notably at the University of Minnesota, that failures on the part of fresh-

men are not due so much to lack of ability as to lack of personal qualities and characteristics which enable the student to adjust himself to the environment and work of the college. Increased emphasis has been placed, therefore, upon admission to college upon the basis of personal qualities, including the physical. Scoring of applicants for college entrance upon the basis of personal characteristics attempts to cover good habits, industry, manners, respect for law, perseverance, alertness, competence, vigor, promptness, accuracy, participation in activities, and financial condition. The University of Chicago, Oberlin, Harvard, Kansas Agricultural College, Leland Stanford University, Reed College, Ripon College, and Swarthmore all have in a serious way attempted such scoring as the basis for admission. The scoring may be a very formal matter, conducted upon the basis of a blank furnished to the principal or other officer of the secondary school, and may involve in addition to such procedure a personal interview between the student and a representative of the college authorities. Northwestern University plans to undertake such scoring upon an extensive scale. Swarthmore, where the plan has been in effect for some time, states that the real entrance examination is the personal interview.

In addition to the service which character scoring renders in securing students who are fitted for good college work, the results of such personal knowledge of students should aid the institution in rendering careful instructional service. In the past the professors under whom students took their work knew little about the high-school records of their students, nothing in most cases about the parents and home conditions from which the students came, and only so much of their mental abilities and tendencies of character as they might derive from classroom contact. The personal history and estimate of students, if made available to the instructing staff, should contribute to improved college teaching procedure.

PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS

Enthusiasts about the possibilities of psychological tests frequently have urged that the psychological test be used as a basis of admission to college. So far development in this line seems to be insignificant. One investigation, made by the north central association in 1924, shows that institutions within its territory were not using mental testing for admission to any great extent. The service of psychological testing, in so far as it has been accepted, apparently lies in other directions, presented in another portion of this discussion.

FRESHMAN PROBLEMS

Careful selection of students for admission to college implies that the work offered after admission will meet their needs to the fullest

possible extent and will give their abilities the greatest possible opportunity for development; and that college life outside the hours of formal instruction will contribute definitely to the well-being of students and will aid directly in their preparation to participate in the privileges and obligations of their adult life.

In the University of Wisconsin by February, 1923, 11 per cent of the class entering in the preceding fall had dropped out; in February 1924, the corresponding figure for the class which entered in the fall of 1923 was 13 per cent. In Harvard only 76 per cent of the freshmen who registered in September, 1923, were promoted in good standing at the end of the freshman year. Lack of ability is the least important factor in accounting for such losses; overenthusiasm for sports and other extra-curricular activities is perhaps the most frequent cause. Leaving the freshman almost entirely to his own devices in making his entrance into the official and social life of the institution results in homesickness and discouragement or in useless effort and dependence upon chance influences. Naturally his fellow freshmen and older students give him a one-sided conception of college life, a picture made up largely of athletics, social life, and extra-curricular employments. The college authorities, the faculty, and study, under such conditions, contend upon unequal terms with "activities" in presenting their claims to his time and attention. He has little direct personal contact with college officials and official purposes, and that little is under what he and his fellows regard as compulsion.

Several institutions, following the lead of the University of Maine, the University of Rochester, and the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, which are pioneers in the movement, have adopted the device known as "freshman week" in order to deal systematically with the conditions described. A study made in 1923-24 by Mary Frazer Smith, of Wellesley College, shows that 41 institutions have adopted this method of orienting freshmen. These institutions require that freshmen report in advance of upper classmen for conferences and lectures, tests, and inspection of the institutional plant. Although called quite generally "freshman week," the actual time devoted to freshman orientation may vary from 1 hour to 10 days. The purpose is to acquaint the new student with the aims, opportunities, and customs of the institution and to secure information, by means of psychological or other tests, which will aid in more careful personal educational service during the freshman year and thereafter. The plan is so simple, results obtained so excellent, and the possibilities for further development so obvious that general adoption of the device of freshman week may be looked for among institutions which are seriously trying to meet their educational and social problems.

SECTIONING CLASSES

Freshman week affords an opportunity for obtaining information which will enable the institution to group students according to their abilities, as revealed by previous academic records or by special tests. The plan of sectioning classes in this way is developing rather rapidly. Eleven institutions, in addition to two now following the plan, intend to inaugurate such sectioning in the near future. The chief hindrances in the way of satisfactory sectioning are the desire of students for specific instructors and schedule difficulties which prevent free passage from one section to another in accordance with the record made by the student in his college work.

Those of us who in college were more concerned in choosing the men under whom we took our work than in choosing the subjects which made up our curriculum sympathize with the student who insists upon being permitted to study under a chosen instructor. To be sure, freedom of choice leads frequently to the selection of professors who have reputations for giving "snap" courses, but there is a sound element in the judgment of students which it may be a mistake to ignore. Frequently students wish to work under good teachers.

If the sectioning plan is to mean anything real, it must involve shifting from lower to higher groups as the student develops or displays his ability to work with such groups. This is especially true in view of the records and tests upon the basis of which sectioning is made in the first place. No one seems to have unlimited confidence in preparatory-school records, in entrance examinations, or in the results of psychological testing.

A study made in the University of Minnesota indicates that the newer psychological method of testing is less reliable than high-school records in prognosticating future work. Mental testing has made enormous strides since the Army tests were applied to so many young Americans, and institutions have attempted to make greater use of them for such rating of students as is implied in the plan for sectioning classes. The results have not been so satisfactory as the friends of psychological testing would desire. Toops and Bridges assert that, to be valuable, the correlation between test and scholastic record must be between 0.70 and 0.80. No such high correlation has been obtained. Many authorities seem to doubt whether the mental tests have a higher predictive value than other criteria. In a study made in the public schools it was found that the correlation between public school teachers' ranking and the subsequent work of students was 0.70 or above, which is higher than has been obtained to date between the mental tests and students' work.

President Coffman, of the University of Minnesota, makes a statement which perhaps represents with considerable justice the present attitude toward the tests:

I would not for a minute speak disrespectfully of intelligence testing, but those who are the members of this cult have in some instances claimed that, by a series of intelligence tests, it is possible for them to determine in a few minutes of time what students can profit by a university and even what vocation they should follow.

The conclusion stated, somewhat humorously, is that because of innate perversity or obstinacy of mind many of us are not entirely convinced. The use of psychological tests for purposes of sectioning is admitted generally, however, to be of value, even though the ability of the test to avoid injustice to the individual is not admitted. The test makes no or insufficient allowance for extraordinary ambition and industry. Students who would be excluded upon the basis of a psychological test, if this were the method of determining admission to college, have, under the restricted application of the test to sectioning, an opportunity to overcome poor records upon the test by means of extra effort. If the test has been wrong in rating them, the injustice can be repaired. In general, educators appear to feel that the psychological test can not yet be trusted to determine the limits of educability and kind of educability, yet its usefulness is admitted, even by sober-minded men who are not carried away by a new experimental process.

ORIENTATION COURSES

One of the charges brought against colleges and universities is that they are overorganized. A multiplicity of schools, of departments, and of courses offered are of necessity confusing to the immature student. He comes from an institution where his work has been very largely prescribed and almost altogether carried on under the immediate direction of his instructors. When he finds his new institution made up of a number of schools which bid more or less independently for his patronage, and of an even larger series of departments magnifying the worth and importance of their subjects, it is a difficult problem for a freshman to understand the relationship existing between the bodies of knowledge which these schools and departments represent. He is likely to go through college with the idea that the department or school which he chooses upon ground of initial interest or personal suggestion represents the whole or nearly the whole body of knowledge required of an educated man.

To overcome the difficulties of the student and to mitigate the effects of departmental mindedness, as distinguished in the phrase of Dr. R. L. Kelley, from curriculum mindedness, institutions have

followed the lead of Columbia University in offering special orientation courses for freshmen. Just as freshman week is intended to orient the student in his new administrative and social environment, the orientation course is intended to orient him in the fields of knowledge which are spread before him in the college curricula. The orientation course is intended to unify the material of the curriculum; to constitute what may be called, following the terminology of vocational education, a pre-educational course. More specifically, it is intended to train the student to think and to introduce him to a general survey of the nature of the world and of man. Committee G of the American Association of University Professors has issued a study of such courses offered by Amherst, Antioch, Brown, Columbia, Dartmouth, Johns Hopkins, Leland Stanford, Missouri, Princeton, Rutgers, and Williams.

One institution at least, Reed College, has carried this idea further; the college course is intended as an orientation one, but orientation in life rather than in college is sought. Of course, colleges have always made the claim that this was their purpose. Reed seems to have attacked the problem from a somewhat fresh standpoint and without the restraints of traditional organization. The criticism so frequently directed against the colleges, that the attitude of instruction is chronological rather than functional, applies in many cases to the work of the orientation courses. Even at Reed, for instance, the first two years of work are directed to providing an historical background. This method of approach is also the one frequently adopted by the freshmen orientation courses. Historical interest usually develops in a student only after a considerable body of information has been accumulated with no or little chronological unification. Desire to unify and coordinate through the agency of time or logical classification is a comparatively late development. The filing system comes after accumulation of correspondence. Although it may require a high order of genius to relate instruction material to the familiar life of the entering college student, some element of such relationship is always introduced by good teachers. In this way only can reality be given to knowledge and intellectual attainments. The present orientation courses, excellent as they are under the limitations of chronological approach, might be greatly strengthened if more systematically and consciously related to student experience.

The attitude of college and university administrations indicated by class sectioning and orientation courses implies changed methods in the later part of the college course. Measures of the kind already described are in large part preliminary to meeting other general criticisms of college work. It is charged that the colleges do not

develop a high type of scholarship. The Phi Beta Kappa Society of the upper Hudson has been sending out speakers to talk to college students about scholarship, since it is maintained that they have very little opportunity to hear about scholarship and great opportunity to hear about athletics and money-making. It is charged that the processes of college are machinelike and that under the formal standards set up education tends to become more interested in meeting formal standards than in education itself. It is asserted that the work of the regional and national standardizing agencies contributes to destruction of individual aims and institutional character.

In the attempt to meet these and similar criticisms institutions have during the biennium considered carefully matters of curriculum revision, and watched with interest surveys of special fields of instruction such as those conducted by the American Classical League, Modern Language Association, and the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education. They have even begun to plan to take definite steps toward the development of better college teaching. Systems of providing special honors and distinctions to induce interest on the part of students in scholarship and in work have made considerable growth. More striking, perhaps, than any of these attempts is the development of honors courses and the tendency to recognize the value of comprehensive examinations. Each of these measures is worthy of consideration. Comment upon proposals with reference to improvement and economy in graduate work will also be discussed before turning to problems of social and college life.

CURRICULUM REVISION

It seems to be generally accepted that it is the function of the college to train the common citizen. If this is true, too much laboratory work, too much research, too much methodology and technique may develop in a college a kind of training which defeats the purpose. What the general run of students need is content material useful in common life, and instruction whose aim is presentation of information in a way that will develop intelligence and a judicial spirit in matters of ordinary experience. In other words, the curriculum should prepare the student to function in the life that he will live after he leaves college. Colleges have always maintained, perhaps, that these were the purposes of their work. The most common method which has been adopted to insure a reasonable unity and relationship between the several subjects studied by a student, and to insure that his course contains all those elements which should enter into the educated consciousness of the common man, has been the grouping of subjects as a guide for the student

in the construction of his curriculum. Grouping of subjects has not been very strictly observed, however, either by students or by the colleges, and little functional unification has resulted. It is still possible for the student to take chemistry without arriving at an understanding of the scientific method. He may still specialize to an extent that leaves him after college an uneducated man in the sense that his knowledge is unrelated to large areas of human activity and interest.

In this connection several interesting experiments have been made which give students or a committee of students an opportunity to suggest curriculum changes. In the second semester of 1923 Vassar organized a student curriculum committee whose work continued in 1924, and its suggestions have been regarded by the faculty as of real value. The students of the College of the City of New York have worked seriously upon this college administrative problem, and their suggestions are of interest in that they appear to indicate that students themselves feel the need for simplification, high standards of scholarship, and what used to be known as an "all-round" education. They recommended that extra credits for high marks be dropped, that Latin and Greek be reduced to the status of electives, that the third-year language requirement for the A. B. degree be abolished, that the language requirement for the social science degree be increased, that required military training be abolished, and that final examinations for "A" students be eliminated. Their suggestion that the requirements for the bachelor of science degree include one year each of psychology, philosophy, English literature, and the history of science, indicates that they recognize the undesirability of too great specialization. They also recognize the basic place of good health in any educational program by the proposal that recreation activities be required of upper classmen as well as of lower.

An important suggestion, which would imply rather thorough-going revision of present curriculum practices, is that instruction be developed functionally upon the basis of student grouping in accordance with their dominant interests. The growth of international study groups among college students upon a noncredit basis would seem to point to a certain degree of utility and practicality in this proposal. Voluntary clubs formed to study international relations exist in 85 or 90 colleges. The Institute of International Education, which is largely responsible for this development, has proposed that orientation courses in foreign relations be developed as a result of this work, but study of this kind is more closely related to the proposal to develop functional credit courses upon the basis of group interest, than to the orientation idea. International relations is but one of many subjects of interest to which students in groups of

considerable size are willing to give time and work. The possible value to formulation of college work of such mental initiative on the part of students is undoubtedly worthy of further thought, but administrative and practical difficulties are so obvious that outside the range covered by free electives, colleges will probably find adoption of the plan inapplicable.

An outstanding and courageous attempt to free the traditional curriculum from some of the old standards has been made by the University of Delaware. This plan contemplates that a group of junior students shall study a year abroad and receive credit at Delaware for the work done. France is selected as the place for the first experiment. Students, under the direction of a member of the resident faculty of the university, leave the United States in July and remain until July of the following year. They follow a very intensive course of language study in France and take up residence at one of the French universities. Each student lives while in residence in a French family, so that French must be spoken.

President Hullihen reports that the greatest obstacle to the plan has been the credit difficulty. Foreign courses do not exactly correspond to work in America. It would seem that the careful restrictions placed upon students to insure that they have the benefits of real study, real language work, and travel under most advantageous conditions for acquisition of knowledge should justify acceptance of a year of such work as the equivalent of nine months' residence in an American institution. The fact that this is not the case seems to bear out the charge that interest in units of credit rather than in education is one of the characteristics of American colleges and universities.

Delaware has adopted, in addition to careful planning and supervision of the work abroad, two important methods and safeguards to avoid criticism which may arise because of the departure from the formal traditional standards of American college education. Juniors are selected for the experiment in order that the faculty will have an opportunity to observe the students when they return to the university as seniors. It is proposed also to substitute for the foreign examinations an examination of the comprehensive type now made familiar and respectable by the development of honors courses.

No doubt the presence in the student body of those who have had the privilege of this foreign study will inspire many first or second year students to qualify for admission to later foreign-study groups. President Hullihen states that the plan has already had a distinct effect in providing a direct objective for the students of the University of Delaware. Another advantage of the plan which is an-

ticipated is that it will stimulate the teaching of foreign language; since, if successful arrangements can be made, similar student groups will be taken to other countries of Europe and South America.

TEACHING METHODS

Colleges have been as yet little affected by the development of educational theory already commonly applied to instruction in the elementary and secondary schools. At first sight it would seem difficult to account for this fact since these theories have been developed in large part by the schools and colleges of education in the universities. Familiarity with these theories, however, seems to be confined to the professors of education. As a matter of fact the college-teaching profession does not rank teaching with research. College teachers and college administrators, although both would repudiate the attitude, tend to undervalue the man who is more greatly concerned about his teaching problems than about his administrative or research work.

No doubt there is a methodology of college teaching. At any rate there is a considerable body of knowledge in regard to the technique of teaching which is not shared or practiced to any great extent by college professors. Graduate students qualify for college teaching positions upon the basis of research which is only in the slightest degree related to ability to instruct. In fact research work of the type which places students upon the list of eligibles for college employment is frequently of such nature that it unfits for teaching. Perhaps the new Kappa Phi Kappa educational fraternity which has for its purpose interesting men students in education may in the long run have considerable effect upon the attitude toward teaching on the part of the professorial class and lead to greater knowledge of college teaching problems.

Aside from the development of the sabbatical furlough for college professors, which has a somewhat attenuated connection with improvement in college teaching, little positive action has been taken to make college professors better college teachers. It is true that college administrators are pleased when they obtain a good teacher, but they have few means of judging the nature of teaching in their institutions and even less satisfactory standards for determining the teaching ability of new men whom they employ. In this connection protest has been made quite frequently during the biennium that as soon as an institution gets a professor who establishes a reputation for good teaching or leadership in research, he is hired away by some other college. Proposals have been made for enforcing contracts more carefully and for the development of high standards of honor as between institutions in the hope that this practice may be discouraged. These proposals are in part based upon the belief that

rooting an instructor in an institution tends to develop better teaching. Objections to this idea are so obvious that it is hardly necessary to mention them. Extreme manifestation of the belief is afforded by the college president who appealed to a graduate institution for an instructor with a statement to the effect that, although the men previously obtained had been good men, they had been hired away by other institutions, and that he hopes now to secure some one who will stay. Selection and retention of professors upon this plan, means, of course, that a premium is placed upon the employment of mediocre men who do not give promise of developing competition for their services.

SPECIAL HONORS AND DISTINCTIONS

There is a growing tendency to adopt some plan of providing special recognition and distinction for the man who attains a certain ranking throughout his college course and for the man who does extra work. These plans follow in general the old principle of granting the degree *cum laude* or *magna cum laude*. One of the most popular recent devices of this kind is based upon what is known as the *point system*. The plan as adopted at the University of Michigan provides that for each "A" grade three points shall be counted; for each "B" grade two points; "C" grade one point; "D" grade no point; and "E" grade a minus point. For graduation the same number of points as of credits or hours is required. The man whose general average in points is 2.15 or 2.5 is regarded as having attained distinction or high distinction, and his name is frequently put in the catalogue or commencement program under these headings. The point system, of course, insures a kind of reward for meeting faithfully the ordinary requirements, but does not very extensively encourage independent study. When in addition honor points are given for extra technical, educational, or special courses, the result is merely to add to the number of units of regular work without giving the individual an opportunity to do work of a distinctive and personal character. This point plan for rewarding industry and high ranking in the work offered implies the least disturbance to the present standardized series of processes through which a student must pass in order to secure a degree, or it may even imply a belief that these processes are the most useful that can be devised.

Of the same general nature as granting special distinctions to students upon the basis of high rating under the regular system is a tendency to make more difficult the passage from sophomore to junior year or from junior year to the senior. Princeton has undertaken to make passage from the sophomore to the junior year somewhat

more difficult, and this is but one of several instances which depend upon increased difficulty without material change in the work offered or in the methods used, to secure higher scholarship and better training.

HONORS COURSES

Limiting enrollment, selective processes intended to secure students who will profit from training, special orientation courses for freshmen, and maintenance of high course averages all fail to provide adequately for the specially gifted student. They all fail to encourage independent initiative and self-directed work to the point where the scholarly attitude or the power of independent procedure in dealing with new problems is developed. The need is for some method which will induce every student, and especially the gifted ones, to extend themselves to the limit of their abilities. The old methods and courses failed to do this. The commission on faculty and student scholarship of the Association of American Colleges in 1923 reported that, of all the attempts to accomplish these purposes, the honors courses developed in this country by Swarthmore is the best and most promising. The honors courses as developed by Swarthmore and adopted by other institutions, notably Barnard, Carleton, and Smith, are based in fact upon the influence of the English honors courses made familiar to this country through the Rhodes scholarships, Canadian practice, and by closer international student relations. The extent of interest in the plan is evidenced by the fact that President Aydelotte's account of the honors courses as developed at Swarthmore, published by the National Research Council, has been exhausted and a second edition made necessary. At Swarthmore the number of honors students has doubled each year for three years. No single movement in higher education has been given more interest or promises more far-reaching results than this. The course as developed implies independent study on the part of students, less formal relationships with the faculty, and relaxation of attendance upon classes and ordinary class examinations. Honors work is confined to the junior and senior years, in part because freshmen and sophomores require basic work, which in Europe is regarded as secondary. This condition emphasizes and no doubt will contribute to more general and practical acceptance of the fact that the first two years of American college work belong in the secondary school. The development of the junior college will doubtless be hastened through this influence of honors courses.

Two features of the honors courses have made an appeal to institutions which have not themselves adopted the plan. Several institutions have attempted to extend the privilege of voluntary attendance

upon classes to students who attain certain ratings. Princeton attempted in September, 1923, to extend further its plan of voluntary attendance upon lectures but was compelled to return to its former plan because lectures were entirely deserted. This fact may indicate that the greater part of the instruction now carried on by the lecture method may more easily and quickly be obtained through reading, or it may indicate that those who do not rank high in regular work have not the maturity and development to understand how to manage their own educational progress. Another element of the honors system which makes decided appeal is the comprehensive examination. The honors students at Swarthmore are tested by comprehensive examinations which emphasize the general subject and therefore tend to decrease the importance of the individual course. At Swarthmore these examinations are conducted by men familiar with the fields, who are brought in from outside the institution. A knowledge of the field rather than of the specific courses taken is thus insured. In a sense those who are directing honors work are thus judged along with the students whose work they control. Reed College uses the comprehensive examination at the end of the junior year. Its work is so organized that such an examination is applicable. At Swarthmore the students in the senior class have petitioned that their final examinations be of the comprehensive type. In the opinion of friends of the comprehensive examination this desire on the part of the seniors is regarded as an indication of high educational and intellectual interest. Persons who are not converted to the comprehensive examination contend that ability to organize and present information in a clear and logical manner, which is the main purpose of the comprehensive examination, may be tested just as thoroughly by the ordinary course examination and that in addition the latter tests knowledge and memory of course work. The discussion is valuable in that it is securing much needed attention to the technique of examinations in America.

GRADUATE WORK

The United States has developed a large number of great universities which are famous for their research work. Through a somewhat curious misapprehension of educational purposes, research and greatness have therefore become somewhat confused. Research no doubt is an important means of testing the standing and reputation of a university, but this basis of judgment is carried to an extreme point when it leads practically every university in the United States to base its claims to recognition upon extensive and varied programs of graduate research work. The fact that eligibility for college

employment depends so largely upon research has contributed to this attitude. The results have not been entirely happy.

During and following the World War the demand for college instructors exceeded the supply. Colleges still demanded, however, that their instructors hold higher degrees. As a result, pressure upon graduate institutions to meet this demand aided in the promotion of the already existing tendency to carry over into graduate research work the prevailing undergraduate conception that education consists of completion of courses and compilation of units. It is asserted quite frequently that graduate work is now on the basis of what the graduate student is admitted from and not upon the basis of what he is admitted to. In other words, research is in some of our graduate departments defined largely in terms of undergraduate college education. As someone has expressed it, present graduate work "coddles immaturity." Professor Woodbridge states the case: "Graduate work should not prepare students for advanced degrees but should give them a chance to do something worthy of a degree."

If it is admitted that this situation is justly pictured, it is obvious that considerable reduction may profitably be made in the extent of graduate research work for degrees now carried on in a large number of our universities. It can not be stated too emphatically that this does not imply in the slightest that the value and importance of real research have been exaggerated. On the contrary, it is a plea for extending and raising the standards of research which lead to the higher degrees.

Two proposals have been made recently looking to improvement of the situation with reference to graduate work: First, that institutions specialize in the kind of graduate work to which they devote their resources, thus insuring, in so far as educational expenditures serve to direct research activity, concentration of energy and ability upon limited fields. Beyond question money alone, even money combined with the assembly of large bodies of graduate students, does not provide all the conditions necessary for successful prosecution of highly specialized research. It is thought, however, that specialization as between institutions will attract to each institution leaders of research who will find in the combination of their work and efforts and in the special facilities provided a happy ground for work of the highest type. A second suggestion made, which is in no way contradictory to the first, is that a greater degree of cooperation in research work as between higher institutions be developed. Several examples of such cooperative research during the period are of special note. The Modern Language Association Research, for instance, in which 35 research groups are cooperating, is pointed to as a conclusive argument for such procedure. Cooperation in research

in the humanities similar to that carried on by the National Research Council in the scientific field might serve to prevent waste and might promote coordinated effort. While not strictly graduate cooperation, the arrangement of the schools of commerce and business in the Universities of Illinois, Indiana, Minnesota, Nebraska, Ohio State, Wisconsin, and Chicago to publish the University Journal of Business in cooperation is an indication that cooperative effort in educational enterprises tends to gain ground.

SOCIAL AND COLLEGE LIFE

Much discussion of the work of the colleges and universities of the United States is centered about the activities which are not directly under the control of the college authorities and arises from discontent with the institutional efforts to give the individual student proper living guidance at those times when he is not in the classroom. These problems, always matters of concern to university administrators, have been emphasized by current criticism. The institutions have felt an increasing need to take positive action looking to personal advice and guidance for students in their numerous academic, social, and financial relations. The feeling has developed that the housing, health, and morals of students are matters to which administrative authority may properly devote more attention. The question is raised whether even the activities directed by students themselves may not be brought into closer relationship with the institutional and educational aims of the college. The charge that the higher institution is an isolated island in the midst of the activities of the world has led to increasing interest in the establishment of outside contacts.

The outside estimate of the tone of our large universities is perhaps best reflected in the bequest in the will of Willard D. Straight, which left to Cornell a sum of money to be devoted to making the institution "a more human place." This problem is not confined to the larger institutions. The president of the University of Illinois in his report for 1922-23 indeed makes a strong case for the larger institution in this respect. He points out that an institution with ten thousand students and a staff of one thousand encourages personal relationships to as great an extent at least as is the case in the smaller college. A larger choice of personal contacts is possible.

However this may be, the universities and colleges are recognizing increasingly the necessity for setting up some agency whose business it is to look after these personal problems. In many institutions this agency is the dean of students. In others personnel bureaus have been established which serve both the needs of the student and of the administrative requirements of the institution itself.

The position of dean of students may be almost indefinitely subdivided. It is recognized that a dean of men may contribute almost as much to the life and education outside college walls as the dean of women contributes to the well-being of the girls. The dean of freshmen is an office which, under the dean of students, devotes itself to the problems of new students. In the University of Illinois a special position was created in 1923 to look after student activities and organizations. The dean of women frequently encourages grouping of women in organizations, as is the case in Illinois.

Frequently the dean manages the employment bureau, is a member or chairman of the student loan committee, gives vocational and educational guidance, advises with reference to and participates in student social activities. The dean helps the individual with personal, friendly advice, straightens out relations with townsfolk, looks after sick students, and establishes contact with parents. He has largely ceased to be regarded as the college official disciplinary agent; he is the college friendship man.

The housing problem in smaller institutions, as well as in the larger ones, presents many problems. The development of dormitories for women especially enables the institution to exercise a certain degree of supervision over the unscheduled hours of the student. Training in the social conventions in college dormitories and dining halls is carried on by means of example or even definite regulation by cultured supervisors. When students live in town, scattered through rooming houses, supervision becomes a difficult matter. Careful supervision of such houses for women is common, but the expense seems to be too great to exercise any large degree of control over the places where the men live. This problem is being met by building dormitories, but requires further attention by institutions which can not hope to house their own students in the near future.

Athletics present troublesome problems to the college administrator who is interested in the well-being of his students and has caused much comment and concern outside college walls. The athletic situation is greatly complicated by the fact that athletics has become a matter of large money transactions. In Michigan in 1922 the revenues from athletics were \$226,465.15, while the expenditures were \$182,909.08. In 1923 the revenue had grown to \$309,107.11 and expenditures to \$190,300.23. In Princeton in 1923-24 the revenue exceeded that of 1922-23 by \$53,063.80, while at the same time operating expenses decreased \$57,032.07. The size of these operations has emphasized the need of mature control of financial matters. Young boys, even young men who are supposed to be receiving a college education, should not be called upon to transact business of such magnitude. The effect upon athletics is to make public spectacles of intercollegiate contests, even though it is true that the

tickets for the big games are taken largely by alumni and students. The tendency is to carry on contests with institutions that result in large gate receipts and to develop coaches and teams who will be winners.

The Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in the Southern States in 1921 appointed a committee of five to inquire into these conditions and into the administration of athletics in member colleges. The inquiry deals with the entrance of athletes to college, their record in college, their past athletic records, with absences from college during the athletic season, with the salary of the coach and by whom paid. The results of this inquiry indicate the need for more effective faculty control, the necessity for reducing salaries of coaches to reasonable limits, and as a corollary the desirability of eliminating the seasonal coaches. The report also advocates the elimination of special students from athletics, the eradication of scouting, and the encouragement of intramural athletics. Condemnation of long trips and of gambling in connection with college athletics is emphatic.

The report in 1921 of the committee of the American Physical Education Association indicates some facts with reference to control of college athletics that are worth recording. Thirty-two per cent of the 250 colleges of which inquiry was made place management in the hands of the faculty; in 30 per cent management is in the hands of the faculty and students; in 25 per cent students and alumni share the control; in 13 per cent students control. There is a growing tendency to place the management of athletics in the hands of the department of physical education. The figures above indicate, however, that there may be some truth in the charge that in certain instances college authorities look to college athletics to create college unity and publicity. The charge is that this attitude accounts for the fact that, in spite of well-known abuses, little is done to correct them.

Much of the discussion centers about the position of the coach. Coaches themselves maintain that high salaries are necessary, since their period of usefulness is short and they have little certainty of tenure. They maintain that college authorities insist upon their producing winning teams and base tenure upon ability to do so. They are not left free to handle the athletic situation as a part of a physical development program. The proposal that coaches' salaries be reduced to a point where they compare not too favorably with the salaries of full professors will depend for its successful operation upon support from the college authorities. Abolition of professional college coaches and substitution of faculty coaches in their place has received great impetus from its approval by representatives of 12 New York and New England colleges in 1922. This plan has been

adopted by Union, Wesleyan, Bates, Trinity, and Hamilton and submitted for consideration to Amherst, Bowdoin, Middlebury, Tufts, Williams, and Colby. The problem of raising the tone of college coaching is also being met by the special courses for coaches offered by various institutions. The University of Minnesota offered in 1924 a complete course of training for teachers of physical education, including coaches, which will lead to the degree of bachelor of science in the college of education. The State Teachers College at Cedar Falls, Iowa, will offer also a four-year course for athletic coaches.

The contention that it is impossible for the college to develop intramural sports in those lines which are carried on in intercollegiate athletics has been disproved conclusively. At Princeton, to take but one instance, 1,215 of its 2,000 students were in 1924 members of intercollegiate sports squads. This did not include those who participated in intramural athletics; if this number were included, 90 per cent of the students of Princeton participated in some form of sport. Careful supervision and determined efforts to bring about an athletic situation which would really contribute to the physical and moral welfare of the students account for such development. The Universities of Illinois, North Carolina, Ohio State, and Ohio Wesleyan also report a great growth in intramural sports. At Michigan intramural contests between teams of women students have developed remarkably. At Michigan also the gymnasium is used to a much larger extent than formerly by summer school students. Efforts to induce upper classmen to participate in regular exercise have been stimulated. Intramural athletics has been coordinated with teacher training work in physical education so that senior and junior students act as instructors for intramural teams, organize teams, and officiate at games. Michigan's new four-year teachers' course in school health and physical education is thus made to contribute to the development of intramural athletics.

The growth of freshmen teams since the adoption of the one-year rule, commonly known as the freshman rule, which at first appeared to be a development which would encourage intramural sports and free the minds of freshmen somewhat for college work, has shown that freshmen athletics is subject to the same abuses as general college contests. Contests between freshmen teams of different institutions have grown to such a point that abuses are quite as serious as those arising from intercollegiate athletics in which teams represent the entire institution. Princeton and Harvard have, as a result, discontinued their freshmen contests.

Important from the standpoint of defining the purposes and objectives of college athletics is the work of the Amateur Athletic Federation which developed from the Secretary of War's Man-

Power Conference, held in 1922. The federation is attempting to define what constitutes physical fitness and to stimulate various agencies, including those of the colleges, to adopt standards and to direct their athletic and sport activities to the attainment of these standards. The University of Michigan is devoting considerable time to working out a series of annual performance or physical efficiency tests for upper classmen. Similar standards for girls are being developed. Modification of men's games when played by girls, to suit the physical characteristics of girl participants, and acceptance of the idea that girl teams should always be coached and controlled by women, indicate considerable progress.

The purpose of all this is, of course, to make college sports and athletics contribute to health rather than to competitive advertising or to the development of students of marked physical prowess.

The morals of college students undoubtedly have always been high, as compared with the morals of similar groups of young people. Aside from the supervision exercised by deans and the advice and aid which they give of a personal nature, the outstanding current discussions which may be regarded as of moral significance concern drunkenness and suppression of smoking by girls. In view of the prohibition laws and regulations, institutions have felt that drunkenness, especially public drunkenness, is an offense more serious than in pre-Volstead days. Princeton has undertaken to deal more decidedly with intoxication by means of suspension in cases which come to the attention of the college authorities. In the case of drunkenness for the first time the period of suspension is short; the second offense results in longer suspension and sending the student home, so that his parents may deal with the case as they see fit. In some cases expulsion results. The attitude of the University of Michigan is somewhat more decided. The president has been commended throughout the United States for his courage in dealing with the problem of drunkenness. In 1923 the regents passed resolutions upon the subject, and in the fall of the same year the university senate discussed this matter thoroughly. The decision was reached that cases of public drunkenness should be punished by dismissal.

Although in the eastern States smoking by girls is not regarded as a matter of moral depravity but rather as one of convention or health, in the West and Middle West a moral significance is attached to smoking by girl students. An outstanding case is that of a girl student expelled for smoking in the Michigan State Normal School at Ypsilanti. This case received wide publicity because it was carried to the courts and because the judge sustained and commended the dean of women for her action. It remains to be seen whether the increasing freedom of women will result in making the standards of

convention and moral practice for the two sexes more nearly the same.

OUTSIDE CONTACTS

More extensive and closer contact between the higher educational institutions and the outside world is intimately bound up with two matters which have given trouble to college authorities—freedom of speech and academic freedom. The former concerns the freedom with which college buildings and property may be used by student organizations and others for presenting ideas and facts which are the subject of discussion outside college walls. No general rule which will eliminate the necessity for discretion has been devised. In general, addresses of a scholarly nature or those of general interest are permitted and encouraged. Advocacy of destruction of the Government by violence or unlawful means or attack upon the accepted code of morals are forbidden. What constitutes an accepted code of morals is, of course, a matter of opinion. Critics of educational institutions contend that when revision of conventional moral standards is in progress, institutions permit the greatest freedom to those who defend the conservative viewpoint, while those who are working for change are forbidden to present their ideas to students. One of the important matters of this kind which has aroused discussion and disagreement is the matter of birth control. Similar differences of opinion arise in connection with political campaigns. No institution would forbid a general discussion of political issues; many will forbid the use of college or university buildings for presentation of the claims of a political candidate even though such discussions and claims are presented freely in the newspapers and across the street from the campus. No doubt an institution has a legal right and a moral obligation to control the outside influences which are brought to bear upon its students; its standards of control should be publicly known and impartially applied.

The matter, however, of participation of the college staff in outside discussions, either in the classroom or in public, presents somewhat greater difficulties. A committee of the Association of American Colleges in 1922 formulated general principles in regard to this matter which after a year's discussion were adopted in 1923. These principles deal with four points. First, they recognize that freedom of research should be maintained unless restriction is necessary in the interest of teaching. Second, the college should not place restriction upon freedom in presentation of the teacher's own subject in the classroom, in outside addresses, or in publications except such as are agreed upon in advance or such as are necessary for immature students. Third, they recognized the right and the duty of the insti-

tution to restrict discussion of outside matters in the classroom which is supposed to be devoted to instruction of a special kind. Fourth, that the teacher's right of public discussion of questions outside his own field is the same as that of anyone else, except that the teacher must always make it clear that he and not the institution is responsible for the views expressed.

JUNIOR COLLEGES

Mention has already been made of the fact that the first two years of college properly belong to the secondary field and of the fact that during these two years occurs the greatest mortality among students. The burden upon the institutions because of large attendance, as well as theoretical reasons, makes them friendly toward the idea of developing separate two-year junior colleges. It is the purpose of such institutions to render educational service along three lines. First, presentation of a liberal arts course of two years which will lead to entrance to the junior year in a college or university; second, conduct of two years of professional or preprofessional courses; and, third, offering two-year completion courses for those who do not desire to secure a degree or to lead professional lives. Friends of the junior college idea see in its future development provision for a number of such institutions so conveniently distributed as to provide locally training of the kinds indicated. They believe that this will relieve the college of many of the problems which arise from immature boys and girls being severed from home connections and also will result in the college being able to concentrate its energies upon higher education rather than upon instruction of a secondary nature. The development of the junior college during the two-year period has been remarkable. In California in 1921 a bill was passed which makes possible the setting up under State aid of an extensive system of junior colleges. Those which undertake to prepare for the last two years of college work must be affiliated with the State university. They are inspected by the university, and the qualifications of the faculty must comply with university standards. The courses of all institutions must be approved by the State board of education and conform to minimum standards set up by the State board. This results in a system which coordinates the junior college with the public schools and with the university more closely than in any other State. In 1922 in the United States there were 200 junior colleges, of which 4 were affiliated with high schools, and 125 were reorganized small colleges. Dr. George F. Zook, president of the Municipal University of Akron, while chief of the division of higher education in the United States Bureau of Education, contributed through his surveys a great deal to the development of this

movement. His studies of college distribution upon the basis of economic resources, population, transportation, and type of educational service required resulted in recommendations looking toward reduction of competition between four-year denominational colleges by changing several of them to the rank of junior colleges and making them feeders for one or two strong institutions affiliated with the denomination concerned.

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